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ABSTRACT

This paper has three objectives: (1) to examine culture as it applies to school-university partnerships; (2) to provide an experimental literature-based tool for assessing the readiness of potential or existing school-university partners to engage in a collaborative venture; and (3) to model the application of this tool using data from a qualitative study of an existing school-university partnership between a large Midwestern university and a small, rural Midwestern school district. An extensive literature review discusses the role of cultural differences in school-university partnerships; describes four cultural dimensions (professional focus, work tempo, rewards, and sense of personal control and efficacy); and discusses the SPIR Model (Stakes, Power, Interest interdependence, Readiness for trust), which was developed as a tool for assessing the negotiations between two parties beginning or continuing a partnership. Finally, the paper reports on a case study of the adaptation of the SPIR model in a partnership designed to assist in exploring perspectives of partnership participants at the elementary and secondary levels in assessing a three-year old partnership with a large university. In particular, the study looked at: what makes a good school district/university partnership; whether the partnership was working; what helped and what hindered the partnership; what personal and institutional benefits resulted from the partnership; and what other partners could provide. Interviews with elementary and secondary faculty members revealed that SPIR values for the elementary school culture and the secondary school culture differed a good deal. It appeared at the end of the third year that the secondary faculty had yet to move beyond the anxiety and frustration of the initial phase, while the elementary faculty was somewhere between the second and third stages where frustration is beginning to lessen, relationships are beginning to develop with members of the other culture, and confidence is increasing. (Contains 29 references.) (ND)

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Cultural Analysis of School-University Partnerships Assessing Dynamics and Potential Outcomes

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The educational reform movement in the mid-1980's resulted in the mainstream recognition of collaborative partnerships between P-12 schools and universities as essential components of quality teacher preparation programs (ATE, 1991; Renaissance Group, 1989; TECSCU, 1995). These ventures, commonly referred to as school-university partnerships, have been described as symbiotic partnerships characterized by three minimal conditions: 1) a degree of dissimilarity between partners, 2) a goal of mutual satisfaction of self-interests, and 3) ability of each party to selflessly assure the satisfaction of all self-interests (Goodlad, 1988). School-university partnerships have also been described as organic collaborations (Schlechty & Whitford, 1988) characterized by shared ownership of ideas, issues, goals, functions, and solutions (Dixon & Ishler, 1992). School-university partnerships as we have come to know them in the 1990's are not new: the concept was introduced long before reports of the Holmes Group and the Carnegie Forum in 1986.

Clark's (1988) historical perspectus on the roots and subsequent growth of school-university collaboration emphasizes the extensive report entitled, "Partnership in Teacher Education", jointly issued by AACTE and the Association for Student Teaching (currently ATE) in 1966. This report provided a landmark exploration of issues such as the politics of school-university collaboration, new approaches for teacher preparation, and the work of John Goodlad's League of Cooperating Schools. The latter (Smith & Goodlad, 1966) was intended in part to develop intermediary personnel who could facilitate interaction between theory-oriented cultures of universities and practice-oriented cultures of schools:

in essence, to bridge the gap between two diverse cultures.

Those who engage in school-university partnership ventures often find attempts at bridging that cultural gap easier to describe than to achieve (Aid for Education Report, 1995; Brookhart & Loadman, 1992; Cuban, 1992; Harris & Harris, 1990). Publications also exist to describe working partnerships in terms of task analysis (Goodlad, 1993; Jones, 1992; Schneider, Seidman, & Cannone, 1994). What is not well-represented in descriptions of successful and unsuccessful partnerships is a contextual analysis of the individual school and university cultures from which partnerships can evolve into the shared culture that is characteristic of a true organic collaboration.

This paper has three objectives: 1) to explore the issue of culture as it applies to school-university partnerships, 2) to provide an experimental literature-based tool for assessing the readiness of potential or existing school-university partners to engage in an organic collaborative venture, and 3) to model the application of this tool using data from a qualitative study of an existing school-university partnership between a large, midwestern university and a small, rural, midwestern school district.

CULTURE IN A SCHOOL-UNIVERSITY PARTNERSHIP

Learning a new culture

Sirotnik and Goodlad (cited in Goodlad, 1993) place "deal with the cultural clash" at the top of their list of problems and issues gleaned from decades of experience with school-university partnership ventures. Contemporary authors are beginning to note

the influence of organizational culture upon school-university partnership ventures (Brookhart & Loadman, 1990, 1992; Case, Norlander, & Reagan, 1993; Cuban, 1992; Goodlad & Soder, 1992; Million & Vare, 1994). Despite cautions surfacing in professional literature, cultural differences are rarely considered as a variable when assessing school-university partnerships. This lack of attention to cultural considerations is unfortunate because the cultural context of an organization drives the expectations, conditions, and interpretations of internal and external communication (Samovar, Porter, & Jain, 1981) and essentially defines the organization:

> "Culture is the sum total of ways of living, including values, beliefs, esthetic standards, linguistic expression, patterns of thinking, behavioral norms, and styles of communication which a group of people develops to assure its survival in a particular environment."
>
> (Hoopes & Ventura, 1979)

Initiating a school-university partnership involves recognition that learning a new culture is a personal undertaking and a necessary step in planning for collaboration. Sikkema and Niyekawa (1987) identify four stages that take place in the process of learning a new culture:

1. *Disorganization*, the initial stage, is characterized by disorientation and anxiety. Frustration is high because usual ways of behaving may not work in the new culture.
2. *Re-examination* results in participants experiencing more ambivalence but less frustration. During this second stage, participants compare the two cultures and experience a conscious awareness of their own culture.

3. Reorganization involves identifying new feelings about one's own culture and the new culture. This stage results in more confidence, increased ability to develop relationships with people from the new culture, and acceptance of the new culture.
4. New perspectives, the final stage, brings an awareness of changes in one's own attitudes and outlooks. This stage is characterized by a greater understanding of the new culture, an expanded awareness of one's own culture, willingness to examine/evaluate cultural aspects previously taken for granted or considered universal, and the ability to articulate new perspectives.

Sikkema and Niyekawa (1987) go on to explain that learning a second culture can be compared to learning a second language. The greater the similarity between the two languages, the easier it is to learn the second language. However, the "negative transfer" is also greater: it easier to mix the two languages, exchange word meanings, or assume a word means the same thing in both languages.

In terms of school-university partnerships, when the two cultures are assumed to be very similar, the likelihood of negative transfer increases. Seemingly minor differences are often ignored and unfamiliarity with what is often a very different culture leads to assumptions of similarities that do not exist. The result can be miscommunication and misinterpretation of words or events.

This assumption of similarity may be the primary reason why the issue of culture is rarely addressed in analysis of school - university partnerships (Brookhart & Loadman, 1990; 1992). After all, education faculty were all P-12 teachers at one point, an

inaccurate statement in some disciplines, and all P-12 teachers were all education students at one point, therefore everyone knows both cultures and differences are a non-issue. This viewpoint makes as much sense as assuming that student teaching is unnecessary because potential teachers have spent 12 or more years as students in classrooms. Conversely, it has also been cited as a contributing factor in the case of an arts and sciences faculty that was better able to establish successful partnership ventures with schools than were their counterparts in the college of education (Jones, 1992). The differences inherent in school and university cultures must be acknowledged if effective collaboration is to occur (Million & Vare, 1994).

School and University Culture

Brookhart and Loadman (1990; 1992) have identified four cultural dimensions that permeate educational settings. Their work is the basis for the following discussion of these dimensions which are focal in describing the nature of collaborative work involving school-university partners: 1) professional focus, 2) work tempo, 3) rewards, and 4) sense of personal control and efficacy.

Professional focus explores the polarity between theory and practice as a means for ascertaining what is important, believed, and valued in a school culture. In school settings, Lieberman and Miller (1984) state that there are two fundamental rules: be practical and be private. The element of practicality emphasizes the importance of strategies that are transferable into classroom activity. P-12 teachers value immediate, concrete applications and

solutions, especially those that require few additional resources and are not much extra work. In some cases, an emphasis on the purely practical over elements of the theoretical results in what Smith (cited in Brookhart & Loadman, 1992) refers to as an "anti-scholastic culture".

The emphasis on privacy undoubtedly results at least in part from the traditional isolation of teachers. Lortie (1975) describes this as the egg-carton structure of school settings wherein the inhabitants of each classroom are kept from interacting by the structure of the environment in which they are placed. Contemporary movements emphasizing teacher empowerment and collegiality are chipping away at this structure, but it is a traditional component of schools that is not easily changed, particularly where veteran teachers are involved. Lieberman and Miller (1984) explain this as a safety factor: privacy maintains teachers' autonomy in the classroom and protects them from public embarrassment if their work with students is not successful. It may also provide the foundation for a tacit agreement to keep classroom doors closed and to maintain the status quo, elements antithetical to the "open for view" shared culture that characterizes many successful school-university partnerships.

In university settings, emphasis is on the theoretical: research (Tatel & Guthrie, 1983) academic freedom, and high academic standards are valued. The conventional epistemological perspective of higher education demands that the academic and the practical realms remain separate (Brubacher, 1982). The resulting argument of knowledge as an end in itself versus knowledge applied in practice

has resounded in the halls of academe for decades, but the underlying emphasis remains on "pure" knowledge, action underscored by carefully structured logic, and a tradition that emphasizes context-free definitions of research and scholarship.

Issues of privacy exist in colleges and universities just as they do in P-12 schools but the nature of such issues is different. Professors are not subject to the same isolation as their P-12 counterparts. Instead, they are under a good deal of pressure to share private, scholarly accomplishments outside the confines of the university by publishing. Despite the outward appearance of a colleagial atmosphere, professors are competing for a limited number of slots in a limited number of prestigious professional journals. Ability to publish and to meet the demands of their university in the areas of teaching-research-service, coupled with their rank and tenure status, determines financial status and reputation. In many cases, particularly at research universities, individual work is valued more than collaborative work and service in P-12 schools may be given little regard.

Work tempo, the pace of the work day and the number of tasks to which a worker must attend, is considered by Brookhart and Loadman (1990; 1992) to be the biggest area of difference between school and university cultures. School faculty members are much more constrained in their freedom to find time for non-teaching pursuits during the course of the workday. Daily responsibilities inherent in working with children rather than with adult students are intense. Teachers are with students almost constantly, in some cases even eating lunch with students. Time is defined by buzzers

or bells. Teachers are in constant motion, have little or no time between classes, and often need to attend to multiple tasks simultaneously. Opportunity to engage in reflection during the workday is rare. In addition, committee work and planning with colleagues is considered an "after-school/extra" activity, often carefully prescribed by collective bargaining agreements.

The work tempo in a university culture differs tremendously. The most readily apparent difference is the flexibility, the largely self-determined pace and schedule, the opportunity to reflect. Professors are not in front of classes all day and may even have a schedule that does not require being in front of students every day. There is time to go out for lunch or engage in discussions with colleagues. When necessary, professors are able to focus efforts on a single research project or paper with minimal interruption. Committee work and planning are integrated as an expected part of the work day. Brookhart & Loadman (1992) emphasize that the tempo of professorial work is determined more by individual calendar than by community rhythms. The definition of time may differ as a result: a "long time" might mean years to a professor; weeks to a P-12 teacher.

Rewards for educators can be defined in terms of resources and reputation. One of the most telling signs of power for an individual or a culture is the ability to obtain, mobilize, and allocate resources. This ability or lack thereof usually sets a reputation for the culture and the people within it: a simple example would be a school with a reputation for fielding good sports teams. Monetary resources are a primary consideration when

discussing reward structures (Bazigos, 1995) in school or university cultures, but resources in both cultures are not limited to money. They may include items such as work space, provision of materials or the equipment needed to engage in specialized research, or support for taking a class or attending a convention.

Lortie (1975) divides teachers' rewards into three categories: extrinsic, ancillary, and intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are received by everyone within the culture. An example would be a regularly scheduled paycheck. Ancillary rewards are also received by everyone but may only be perceived as rewards by some: everyone may have time off during the summer but some may welcome the break while others would prefer to be teaching. Intrinsic rewards are different for everyone and are highly personal or subjective in nature.

Lortie (1975) also discusses punishments that exist within the school culture. Although dismissal is highly unlikely except in extreme circumstances, once the probationary period has passed, the lack of opportunity to receive rewards for excellent teaching may function as a cultural sanction. For example, unless a merit pay system is in place, yearly pay increases are generally based solely on years of experience and length of tenure within the district. Most negotiated agreements assure good teachers and poor teachers the same annual step up on the salary scale. Teachers who gain an unpopular reputation with administrators or peers may receive less desirable schedules or room assignments but their livelihood is unaffected. The culture demands that teachers draw from intrinsic sources if they are to be rewarded.

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University rewards systems, by contrast, are designed to emphasize extrinsic rewards (Brookhart & Loadman, 1992). Annual pay increases depend partly on salary and partly on merit pay, determined by a yearly assessment of professorial contributions in the areas of teaching, research, and service. Teaching is assessed by students, whose criteria for judgement may be less than objective, and by peers, who may or may not approve of colleagues engaging in school-university partnership ventures. Research assessments rely heavily upon the quantity and quality of refereed publications, a process that is highly competitive and may tend to favor quantitative approaches to the research process, not always best means of inquiry regarding partnership ventures. Reputation is often determined on-campus and off-campus, as in the example of professors who are well-known on their own campuses but have little name recognition off-campus. Sanctions in the university culture go beyond a challenging class schedule to possible loss of merit pay or denial of tenure and promotion.

Control or efficacy refers to the perceived ability to make a difference in or exercise control over the work environment. A fundamental characteristic of cultural efficacy is the strength of individual roles within the culture and the ability to trust others to uphold practices and values considered important. This can mean something as simple as providing refreshments when faculty members attend an early morning meeting or something as complex as honoring the role of P-12 practitioners within the university culture. Trust is essential for communication and communication is essential for developing and maintaining partnerships with other cultures.

Efficacy within the culture establishes a sound foundation for perceived ability to contribute to the shaping of a partnership. If this is not the case, establishing a shared culture is difficult. For example, a school district going through a controversial consolidation process would not be a good candidate for a partnership venture because it is likely that teachers would be dealing with internal trust issues and feelings of powerlessness.

Brookhart and Loadman (1990; 1992) state that different work place cultures contribute to the formation of different professional values and behaviors. An understanding of the differences that exist between two cultures that may be deceptively similar in appearance provides a basis for analyzing the readiness of both cultures to enter into an organic partnership.

ASSESSING READINESS FOR ORGANIC COLLABORATION

In his 1995 chapter, "Partnership Dynamics in Practice", Bazigos presents a model that can be used for assessing the negotiations between two parties contemplating the start or continuation of a partnership (see Figure 1). The SPIR Model (Stakes, Power, Interest interdependence, Readiness for trust) is described by Bazigos as, "a paradigm for predicting or analyzing outcomes of organizational negotiations" (p. 175). Assertive strength, assessed in terms of stakes and power, is plotted on the vertical axis. Quality of the relationship, assessed in terms of readiness for trust and interest interdependence, is plotted on the horizontal axis. The SPIR model recognizes the possibility of five potential outcomes: collaboration, compromise, competition,

accommodation, or withdrawal from the partnership.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Collaboration is defined as a cooperative undertaking between two or more parties and typically involves coordinating actions and sharing resources to achieve similar goals. Collaboration increases available resources by pooling those of both parties.

Accommodation refers to a capitulation to the demands of another party. Compliance, giving in, and surrender are two examples. Resources are divided according to the will of one of the parties. This option may be exercised on a trade-off basis when the issue is of minimal importance to the accommodating party.

Competition can be defined as one party's attempt to gain control of some aspect(s) of the other party's assets. It differs from accommodation in that the attempt may or may not be hostile and usually means both parties will attempt to win limited resources.

Withdrawal quite simply is a situation in which one or both of the parties is simply no longer willing to participate in the communication process. Subsequent actions may involve dissolving the partnership so to maintain the dignity of both parties, but the decision to exercise this option is made on a unilateral basis.

Compromise is a mutually agreeable settlement between opposing interests, based on multilateral concessions in the pursuit of a working relationship. This step can be taken as an alternative to any of the other four options in the model. A fixed amount of resources is divided into more but smaller pieces.

Adaptation of the SPIR Model: A Case Study

Many schools and universities are encountering difficulty in combining two apparently similar but in actuality very diverse individual cultures into the shared culture of school/university partnerships. When combined with a system of content analysis based on components of cultural settings, Bazigos' SPIR model can be adapted to assess the readiness of school-university partners to begin or continue in an organic collaborative partnership through content analysis of a set of questions designed to facilitate reflection. The resulting process of reflection and assessment can be followed by any number of school or university cultures within a given partnership venture, as in the following example.

In May of 1992, a large, midwestern university and a small rural school district signed a formal declaration of intent to form a partnership aimed at enhancing both educational programs. It had come together rather quickly for a variety of reasons and neither side was quite sure what to do next once the partnership agreement had been signed. Because the decision to initiate a partnership had been made on upper administrative levels, many professors and most teachers who would be crucial to its success were at best unsure of what the partnership was about when it was announced. Teachers at the secondary level were especially uncertain about the partnership venture. In the three intervening years, the partnership has experienced several changes in leadership, has evidenced high and low points, and is yet to achieve a sense of community.

A study was designed to assist in exploring perspectives of partnership participants at the elementary and secondary levels in

search of insight into strengths and weaknesses of this specific partnership and resulting readiness to engage in an organic school-university relationship based on an analysis of cultural factors. Reflection was facilitated by the following reflective question set:

1) What makes a good school district/university partnership?
2) Is this partnership working?
3) What is getting in the way of the partnership?
4) What is helping the partnership?
5) What personal benefits have resulted from the partnership?
6) What institutional benefits have resulted from the partnership?
7) What could the other partner(s) provide for you or for your colleagues to assist in accomplishing your professional goals?

All faculty members in the elementary school (grades P-6) and all faculty members in the secondary school (grades 7-12) were invited to respond to the questions during May and June of 1995 by the university coordinator assigned to the partnership school in the 1995-1996 academic year. All but 2 of the elementary faculty chose to respond and all but four of the secondary faculty chose to respond. Most addressed the questions via short personal interviews, lasting approximately 20 minutes, held in the co-ordinator's on-site office. The co-ordinator scripted detailed notes, often reading notes back to the person being interviewed for verification. Results were compiled onto two master survey sheets, one for the elementary school and the other for the junior high and high school, listing all responses to each question.

Content analysis was used to code both sets of narrative responses to the reflective question set according to twelve related thematic components based on Brookhart & Loadman's cultural dimensions and organized according to Bazigos' SPIR dynamics:

1. SPIR dimensions and thematic components consist of:

   SPIR Organizational Dynamic - Power
   Rewards, resources, reputation

   SPIR Organizational Dynamic - Stakes
   Beliefs, values, professional focus

   SPIR Organizational Dynamic - Readiness for Trust
   Equality, efficacy, trust

   SPIR Organizational Dynamic - Interest Interdependence
   Communication, expectation, assessment

Code each phrase on the master survey of each organizational culture by deciding a) which of the 12 thematic components best describes the phrase and b) whether the phrase is a positive or negative descriptor. A list of partnership assessment inquiry questions (Appendix A) can assist in content analysis and also in subsequent discussion once results of the analysis have been completed. Complete sentences may need to be broken into phrases. For example, the statement: "they get all the attention and all we get from it is outdated computers" would be separated into two phrases: "they get all the attention" [equality] and "all we get from it is outdated computers" [resources]. The first phrase may have been coded as an issue of perceived rewards if it had not been prefaced by "they get..." and used in a juxtapositional sentence.

2. When all phrases are coded, tally the numbers of positive and negative descriptive values for each of the 12 components on the cultural dimension component assessment form (Appendix B).

3. Add the numbers of positive factors and negative factors expressed in each of the four organizational dynamic components to achieve a sum total of positive and negative factors for each of the four SPIR organizational dynamics.

4. Compute the mean value for each of the four SPIR dynamics by adding the numerical sums (no negative values: all numbers are computed as positive) of the positive and the negative factors and dividing by two.

5. For each of the four SPIR dynamics, subtract the sum of total negative factors from the sum of total positive factors to compute a SPIR value for the dynamic. A negative value may result. If there is only one sum total, positive or negative, for a SPIR dynamic, no computation is necessary and that number becomes the SPIR value for that dynamic.

5. Plot numerical values for power and stakes on the lines to the left of the vertical axis and numerical values for trust/ interest on the lines below the horizontal axis on the modified SPIR Model (Appendix C). The broken lines extending from point 3 on the vertical and the horizontal axis represent neutral values: positive values are plotted above or to the right of the line, negative values are plotted below or to the left of the broken line.

If the SPIR value is less than the numerical mean of the sum total of positive and negative factors, plot the value between points 3 and 4 (if the SPIR value is positive) or between points 3 and 2 (if the SPIR value is negative) The farther the SPIR value is from the mean, the closer to point 3 it will be plotted.

If the SPIR value is greater than the numerical mean of the sum total of positive and negative factors, plot the value between points 4 and 5 (if the SPIR value is positive) or between points 2 and 1 (if the SPIR value is negative). The greater the SPIR value, the closer to points 5 or 1 it will be plotted.

6. Determine the quadrant in which plotted SPIR values intersect for each combination. (For example: where "Stakes" intersects with "Readiness for Trust" and where "Stakes" intersects with "Interest Interdependence".)

7. Consider the implications of the model regarding potential outcomes of collaboration, accommodation, competition, or withdrawal. The closer intersecting points lie to the midpoint of the diagram, the more "compromise" becomes a possible option. If the procedure results in points intersecting in more than 1 quadrant, consider reasons for this based on assessment of the SPIR components and determine which quadrant most accurately profiles the dynamics of the culture.

8. Compare SPIR dynamic profiles for each culture analyzed.

RESULTS AND APPLICATIONS

In this particular case study, the SPIR values for the elementary school culture and the junior high/high school culture differed a good deal as can be noted in the following Cultural Dimension Component Assessment:

	Elementary School Cultural Setting 1 +	-	Junior High/High School Cultural Setting 2 +	-
Power				
Rewards	+ 2,	0	+ 1,	- 1
Resources	+13,	- 6	+ 2,	-11
Reputation	+ 2,	0	0,	0
Total:	+17,	- 6	+ 3,	-12
SPIR Value:	+11		- 9	
SPIR Mean:	11.5		7.5	
Stakes				
Beliefs	+ 5,	-1	+ 1,	0
Values	+ 7,	0	0	- 3
Professional Focus	+ 2,	0	0	- 3
Total:	+15,	-1	+ 1,	- 6
SPIR Value:	+14		- 5	
SPIR Mean:	7.0		3.5	
Readiness for Trust				
Equality	+ 3,	0	0,	- 4
Efficacy	+ 4,	0	0,	0
Trust	+ 1,	- 7	0,	-21
Total:	+ 8,	- 7	0,	-25
SPIR Value:	+ 1		- 25	
SPIR Mean:	7.5		12.5	
Interest Interdependence				
Communication	+ 1,	- 2	+ 2,	- 6
Expectation	0,	- 7	0,	-12
Assessment	+ 1,	- 1	0,	0
Total:	+ 2,	-10	+ 2,	-18
SPIR Value:	- 8		-16	
SPIR Mean:	6.0		10	

Results of the Cultural Dimension Assessment Form plotted on the adapted SPIR model (see figure 2) indicate a culture likely to move forward in the collaborative or competitive modes at the elementary level and a culture ready for withdrawal from the partnership at the junior high/high school level. A look behind the SPIR values provides additional insight into results of the case study and demonstrates tips for analysis and interpretation.

Insert figure 2 about here

Interpretation tips: Elementary

The most readily identified are the components that are assessed for only positive or only negative content. In the case of the elementary composite, the entire SPIR dynamic of Stakes reflects all but one positive response. Teachers offered comments such as, "you have to be willing to take risks", "keep a positive attitude" and "people must be willing to be responsible teachers -in all areas".

Consideration of the SPIR Mean values also provides insight into thematic components most frequently reflected in responses to the open-ended question. For elementary faculty members, the SPIR dynamic of power (rewards, resources, reputation) was frequently noted in the content analysis process. Resources were most frequently mentioned although not uniformly identified as a positive component. Lack of time to sit down together and plan was the most frequent response to the question, "what is getting in the way of the partnership?" In spite of the fact that this was mentioned as a negative component of the cultural dynamic the fact that some of the elementary faculty regretted not having more time to plan with members of the university faculty was not in itself negative. All interested faculty in the district had recently acquired e-mail addresses through university access and elements surrounding this resource also received several positive comments.

When engaging in content analysis of responses it is helpful to be sensitive to semantics, for example speaking in terms of "we and they" rather than a collective "we" or using expressions such as "the other side" rather than "everyone" or the more tentative "on both sides". When noting a "they" pronoun, it may be beneficial to distinguish between an internal "they" and an external "they". For example, elementary and secondary faculties noted concern in the area of trust. Of the seven negatives expressed in this area by elementary faculty, four referred to an internal "they". In the case of the secondary faculty the opposite was true: ten of the negative references to trust focused on the university culture although seven did focus on the school or district culture and four were culturally non-specific.

Interpretation tips: Secondary

Concerns with internal trust may be partially explained by comparing both sets of data. The secondary profile is very different from the elementary, indicating more negative content themes. Narrative responses indicate the same resource issues are, in some cases, perceived differently. For example, one way that the university sought to provide release time for teachers and opportunities for innovative groupings or individual attention for students was to assign a cohort of student teachers to the district for an entire university semester. Many elementary faculty members perceived the student teachers as a positive resource: "I like the exposure to new ideas." "I'm more conscious of how I teach." "Being able to observe someone else with my kids helps me, too." In

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contrast, most secondary faculty saw this as a negative resource, indicated by comments such as: "This is a dumping ground for student teachers." "If all they want from us is a place to put student teachers, if that's the focus, then say so from the first."

Although this assessment process focuses on content analysis of responses, considering the people who do not choose to respond, and their reasons for this choice if known to the researcher, can also be another piece of the cultural puzzle. Of the four secondary faculty who did not choose to respond, one was leaving the district because her husband had taken a position outside the area, one had very politely but very firmly refused to have anything to do with the partnership since its inception, and the other two were outspoken opponents of the partnership and at times of the university. The accuracy of the negative content profile presented by the secondary faculty's responses may have been questionable if the four who chose not to respond had been known supporters of the partnership venture who were kept from responding by unexpected events or prior commitments. This was not the case in this sample.

Finally, when comparing faculties from the same district, it is valuable to note similarities in frequently cited content themes where they occur. When responding to the question, "what is getting in the way of the partnership?", members of both faculties mentioned concerns regarding school-based administrative support for the partnership, ranked in the top three areas most frequently cited, as in the following comments: "I'm not sure the administrators are behind this." "Administrators have yet to fully buy into the possibilities." "Administrative support is important: not sure we

have that for the partnership." This may provide partial insight into issues of internal trust raised by members of both faculties. It is also worth noting that the district has had a new secondary principal for each of the three years of the partnership and hired a new superintendent in the third year.

Conclusion

Results of the assessment process are intended to provide a basis for discussion by the cultures involved. Referring to Sikkema and Niyekawa's (1987) steps of learning a new culture, it appears that, at the end of the third year, the secondary faculty had yet to move beyond the anxiety and frustration of the initial phase while the elementary faculty was somewhere between the second and third stages where frustration is beginning to lessen, relationships are beginning to develop with members of the other culture, and confidence is increasing.

As John Goodlad wrote in 1993, "The necessary joining of K-12 and university cultures brings with it virtually every problem documented in the literature of educational change. Yet it is a long overdue effort that is here to stay." Content analysis of the open-ended question set based on cultural dimensions cited in professional literature and applied to an adapted version of Bazigos' SPIR Model can provide a means to explore cultural dynamics within existing school-university and assess readiness to begin or continue in the kind of organic partnership that forms the basis of a shared culture.

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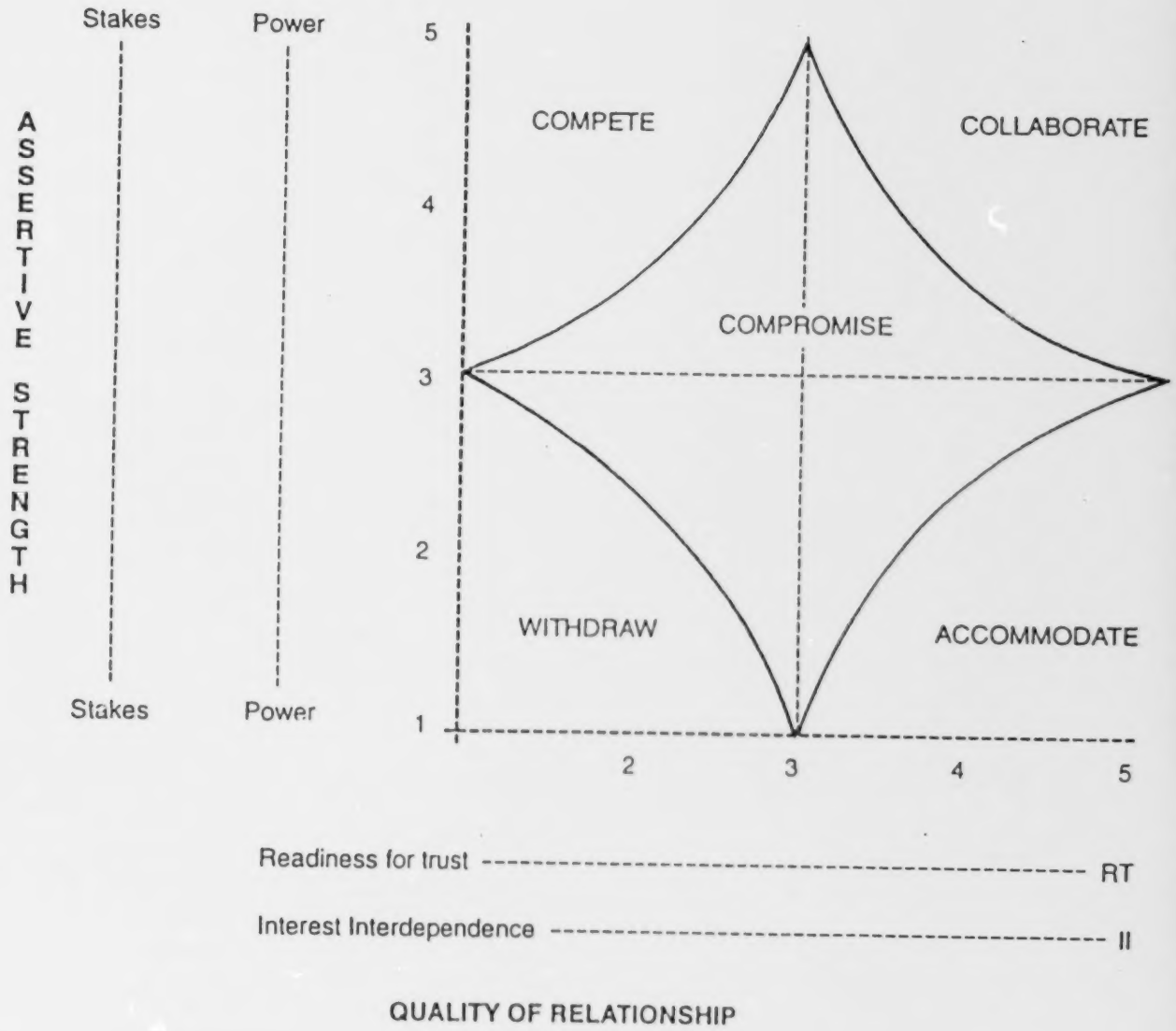

Figure 1. The SPIR dynamic: conflict strategy plotted against strength and quality of relationship.

REFLECTIVE QUESTION SET

1) What makes a good school district/university partnership?

2) Is this partnership working?

3) What is getting in the way of the partnership?

4) What is helping the partnership?

5) What personal benefits have resulted from the partnership?

6) What institutional benefits have resulted from the partnership?

7) What could the other partner(s) provide for you or for your colleagues to assist in accomplishing your professional goals?

Appendix A

PARTNERSHIP ASSESSMENT INQUIRY (PAI) QUESTIONS

REWARDS
How does this partnership impact our culture's reward structure?
In what specific ways does this partnership enhance our personal rewards?
What adjustments are needed for the demands of engaging in collaborative work?

RESOURCES
What are our culture's needs re: finances, expertise, technology, materials?
Are we aware of cultural differences re: use & definition of professional time?
What financial or other resources are both cultures willing & able to contribute?

REPUTATION
What is the self-perceived reputation of our culture?
How do other members of our community perceive the reputation of our culture?
Is our reputation enhanced by engaging in this partnership?

BELIEFS
What is our culture's educational mission and role?
What do we believe about our academic standards and our teaching skills?
How essential is this partnership in supporting our cultural mission and role?

VALUES
What are our goals and objectives, based on our beliefs?
How does the partnership help us achieve individual and shared goals?
What is most important to us as a culture - what are our non-negotiables?

PROFESSIONAL FOCUS
What issues do we face regarding theory and practice?
What are our standards related to privacy, autonomy, and openness?
How do we define our jobs and does that definition change in this partnership?

EQUALITY
Are there internal issues of equality that may compromise this partnership?
Is there a mutually agreeable balance between what we need and what we can offer?
Does everyone in the partnership have an equal opportunity to be heard?

EFFICACY
What sense of personal power/impact/efficacy do members of this culture possess?
Are members of this culture supported by stakeholders when they take action?
Is individual and cultural efficacy enhanced by this partnership?

TRUST
Do we experience internal support from peers, supervisors, & those we supervise?
Do we trust the administrative structure of both cultures in the partnership?
What is the history of our culture with the partner culture or like cultures?

COMMUNICATION
Are all members of the partnership given relevant information in a timely manner?
Are we aware of and do we have confidence in contact persons in both cultures?
Are decisions reached by consensus and tabled details not forgotten?

EXPECTATIONS
What personal and cultural expectations do we have for this partnership?
Can expectations be clearly articulated by all members of our culture?
Do we understand cultural expectations of the partner's culture?

ASSESSMENT
How will we know if the partnership is working?
How will we do short/long term evaluation of our involvement in the partnership?
How will we do short/long term evaluation of the shared partnership culture?

Appendix B

CULTURAL DIMENSION COMPONENT ASSESSMENT FORM

	CULTURAL SETTING 1		CULTURAL SETTING 2	
Power	+ values	- values	+ values	- values
Rewards				
Resources				
Reputation				
Total:				
SPIR Value:				
SPIR Mean:				

Stakes	+ values	- values	+ values	- values
Beliefs				
Values				
Professional Focus				
Total:				
SPIR Value:				
SPIR Mean:				

Readiness for Trust	+ values	- values	+ values	- values
Equality				
Efficacy				
Trust				
Total:				
SPIR Value:				
SPIR Mean:				

Interest Interdependence	+ values	- values	+ values	- values
Communication				
Expectation				
Assessment				
Total:				
SPIR Value:				
SPIR Mean:				

Selke, 1996

Appendix C

(Bazigos, 1995 - adapted by permission of the author)

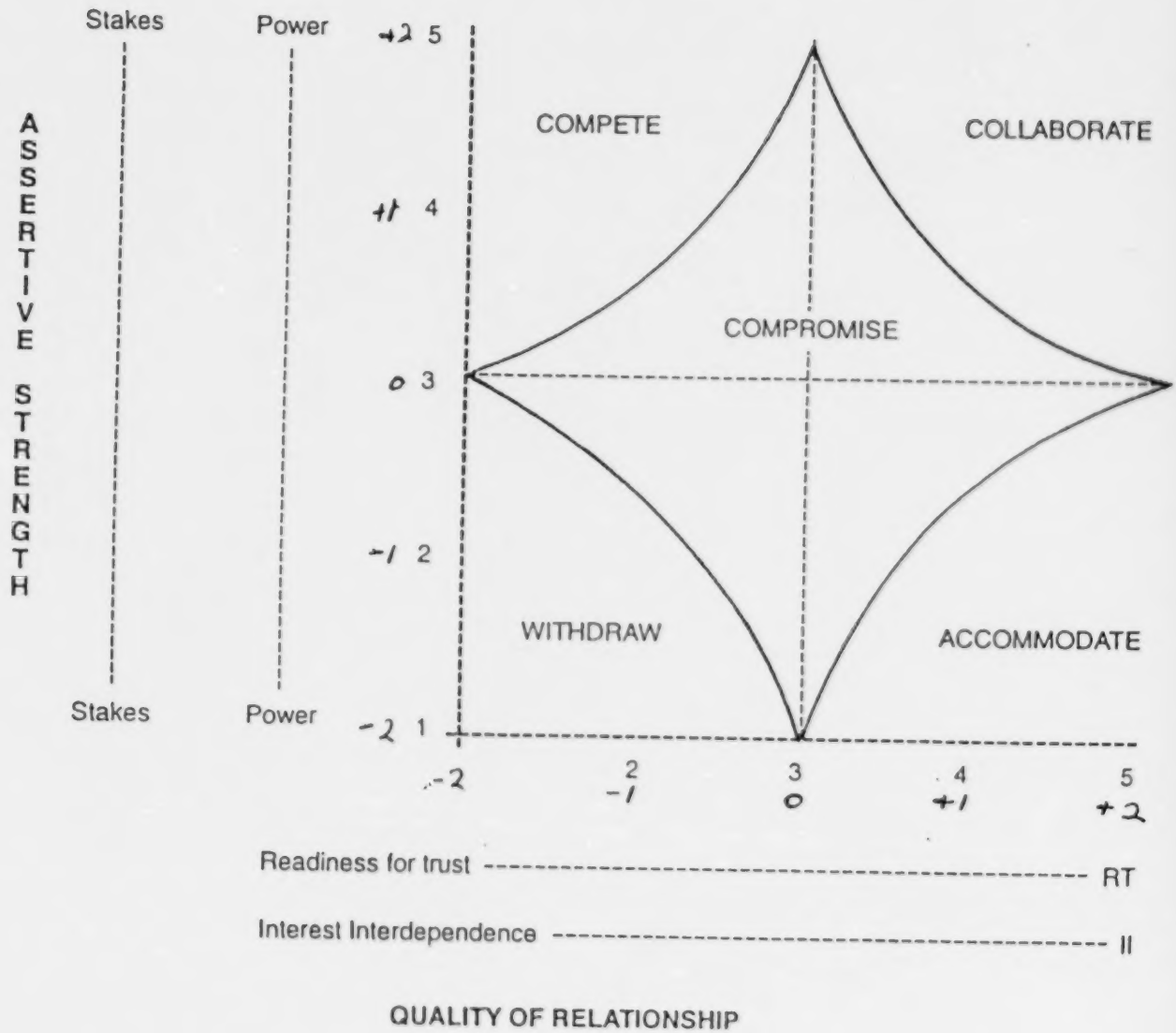

Figure 1. The SPIR dynamic: conflict strategy plotted against strength and quality of relationship.

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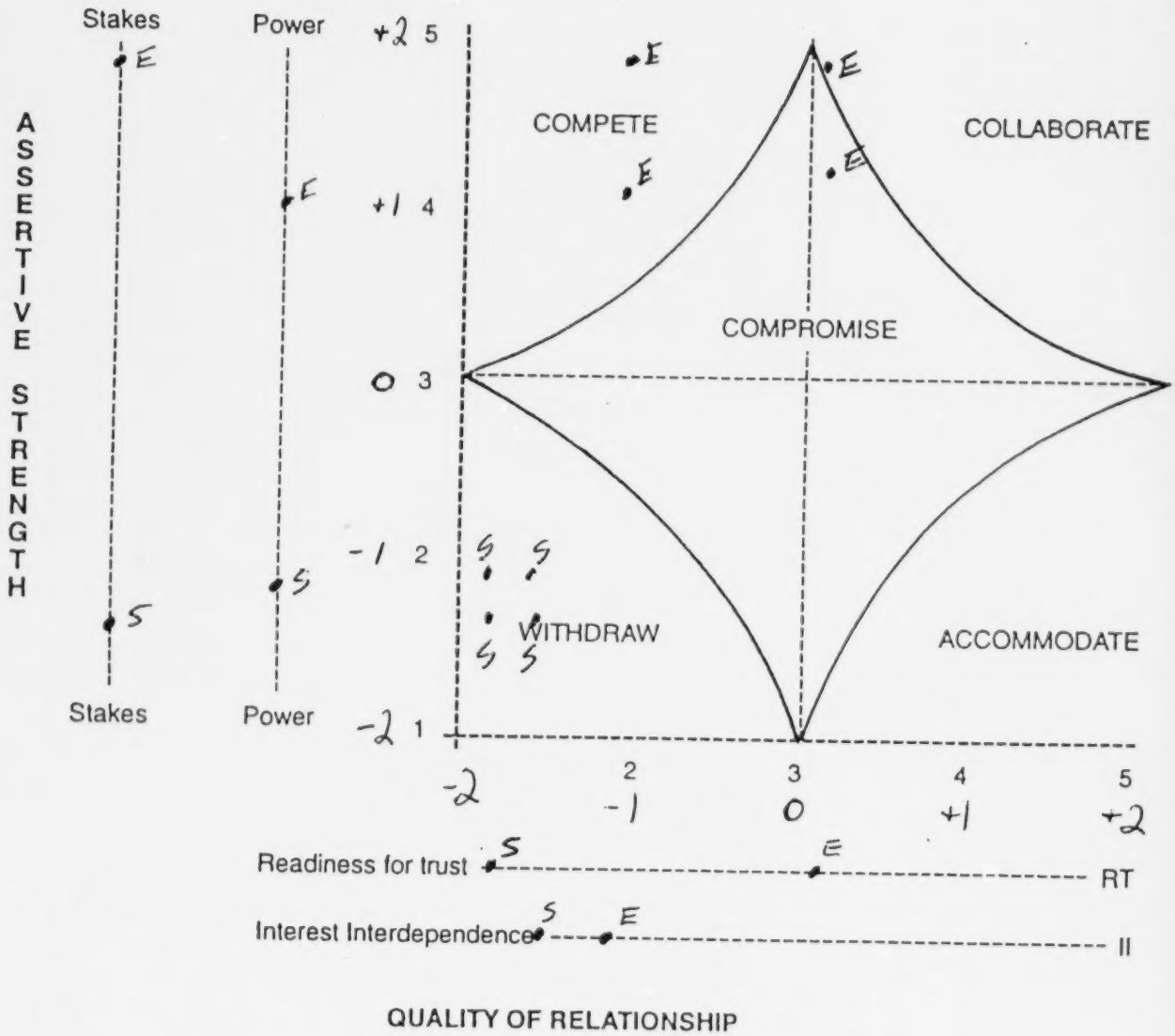

Figure 2. The SPIR dynamic: conflict strategy plotted against strength and quality of relationship.

Results: Case study data
S = secondary
E = elementary